Why is the PO Fit-Turnover Intentions Relationship so Small? Personality Facets as Potential Moderators

By Kaleena Muirhead

Supervisor: Dr Sasha Chernyshenko

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Abstract

This research focuses on the supposition that personality variables may act as moderators of the relationship between Person-Organisation Fit (PO fit) and attitudinal criterion variables. Most current organisational research considers the PO fit concept to be applicable across all organisational members. For example, Chatman (1991), who studied PO fit in terms of the match between organisational and personal values, believes that organisational socialisation processes uniformly improve one's fit and subsequently yield better organisational outcomes. Yet, individual difference research tells us that people vary in their willingness to change their attitudes, as well as, perhaps their sensitivity to PO misfit altogether (Schneider, 2001). Our study investigated personality traits as potential individual difference moderator variables of the PO fit-turnover intentions relationship. Personality facets measured were cooperativeness (consisting of compliance and pleasantness sub-scales), anxiety and sociability. Study outcomes were job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions. PO fit scores were created by correlating the constructed Organisational Value Profile with each employee's Individual Value Profile. Using survey design, questionnaires were administered to 111 employees from a large organisation in the New Zealand aviation industry. Results showed that anxiety significantly moderates the relationship of PO fit predicting turnover intentions. Implications of findings are discussed.

Introduction

Research within the area of person-environment (PE) fit has been vibrant for more than a century (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman & Johnson, 2005). PE fit broadly looks at the compatibility of characteristics between an individual and his/her environment (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). While characteristics to be matched can vary dramatically (e.g., interests, personality, values, vocations, jobs, work groups, supervisors and even entire organisations), the results seem to be relatively robust. In work settings, PE fit seems to be positively associated with successful recruitment and selection decisions, higher performance, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and well-being, and negatively associated with turnover and other withdrawal behaviours (Edwards, Cable, Williamson, Lambert & Shipp, 2006).

One of the most salient sub-types of PE fit is person-organisation (PO) fit, which has been defined as the "compatibility between people and organisations in which they work" (Kristof, 1996, p. 1). Other forms of PE fit are person-job, person-team, or person-vacation fit. However, PO fit has generally received considerably more attention among organisational researchers than these other types. An example of PO fit related research is Schneider's (1987) attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) theory, which explicitly postulates the importance of person-organisation congruence. The ASA theory suggests that people are attracted to organisations with characteristics similar to them; at the same time, organisations seek individuals who also have characteristics aligned with theirs (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). This mutual attraction results in organisations selecting individuals that are more "fitting" which, thus, increases worker homogeneity. Furthermore, individuals that find themselves "non-fitting" in such less diverse environments are likely

to become increasingly dissatisfied, find the work place less appealing and, ultimately, leave the organisation (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991).

This research paper attempts to answer some important questions in relation to using PO fit scores in practice. The majority of PO fit literature is rooted in organisational behaviour and management domains, which deals with average effects. Yet, practical applications require individual-based decisions, so it is currently unclear whether PO fit is important for all employees, or only for certain subgroups. To be more specific, I want to research whether particular individual difference variables (i.e., personality traits) may moderate the relationship between PO fit and attitudinal outcomes. At some personality trait levels, these relationships may be stronger, while at other levels individuals may compensate for misfits and there will be little or no fit-criterion relationships. The existence of moderators in this research domain may help to shed light on why recent meta-analyses (Verquer, Beehr & Wagner, 2003) have found such a large variability in PO fit-criterion correlations across primary studies.

Therefore, this study will investigate whether three personality facets (cooperativeness, anxiety and sociability) will moderate the relationship between PO fit and an important organisational outcome, turnover intentions. Before discussing the specifics of this research, however, I will briefly describe relevant research and pertinent issues within the PO fit literature.

Conceptualisations of PO fit

Although there is a general consensus that PO fit essentially involves the compatibility between individuals and their organisations, the actual nature of this compatibility has lead to much confusion in the conceptualisation, operationalisation and measurement of PO fit (Kristof, 1996). Fit can be conceptualised as complementary fit (which can be further broken down into needs-supply and demands-abilities fit) or

supplementary fit (Edwards et al., 2006). Complementary fit exists when an individual's characteristics fill an existing gap in the environment or vice versa (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Conversely, supplementary fit designates a context where the person and the environment are similar (or congruent) (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). The majority of organisational behaviour theories and cited studies involving PO fit are based on the notion of supplementary fit and assume that positive outcomes occur when individuals fit or match various aspects of an organisation (O'Reilly et al., 1991). Accordingly, this study will use a supplementary fit conceptualisation.

Operationalisation of PO fit

PO fit has been operationalised using a plethora of characteristics including needs, skills, preferences, personality traits, goals, attitudes and values (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Chatman's (1989) seminal paper on PO fit theory focused primarily on values and subsequent to the validation of the Organisational Culture Profile (OCP, O'Reilly et al., 1991), value congruence has become widely recognised as the defining operationalisation of PO fit (Verquer et al., 2003). Values can be considered as "internalised normative beliefs" (O'Reilly et al., 1991, p. 492) that guide attitudes and behaviour, and are believed to represent an individual's generalised preference for the environment. Chatman (1991) argued for values as the basis of PO fit due to them being fundamental and enduring characteristics of individuals and organisations. To add support to the use of values for representing PO fit, Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) looked at various PO fit content dimensions as moderators of the fit-outcome relationship. They found that, with job satisfaction as a criterion variable, values-based fit ($\rho = .51$) had a stronger prediction than goal-based ($\rho = .31$) or personality-based fit ($\rho = .08$). Furthermore, Hoffman and Woehr (2006) also showed that analyses looking at the relationship between value congruence and outcomes ($p = .26$) was slightly larger than other forms of fit ($p = .24$). Based on the

aforementioned evidence, this study will use value congruency (the similarity between organisational and employee values) to operationalise PO fit.

Measurement of PO fit

Strategies for measuring fit vary widely and are extensively disputed. There is little consensus surrounding the 'best' way to measure fit, which is likely adding to the confusion evident in PO fit literature. However, PO fit measurement types can be classified into three different categories consisting of subjective, perceived and objective fit (Kristof, 1996). All three of these approaches assess discrepancies between the characteristics of an individual and those of an organisation; however, the method used to obtain the discrepancy differs considerably across the approaches (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006). Objective fit measures ask the individual to describe his/her characteristics and then ask differing organisational representatives to describe characteristics of the organisation. Subsequently, individual and organisational scores are combined to yield a measure of congruence either by calculating difference scores or by correlating the individual and organisational characteristic profiles. In contrast, subjective and perceived fit measures elicit information solely from the target individual. Subjective fit measures ask the individual to rate both the characteristics of themselves and the organisation separately (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Perceived fit measures involve asking the individual to directly assess their level of compatibility with the organisational characteristics (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

While subjective and perceived fit measures are used in PO fit studies, objective fit measures involving profile correlations are very prevalent (see Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Chatman, 1991; Ostroff, 1993). Their popularity may be due to the simplicity of fit score calculations, but in my view there are also other crucial reasons for employing an objective measure when predicting attitudinal variables.

The first is that both self-perception theory (Bem, 1967) and cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957) suggest that individuals have an impetus to uphold internally consistent perceptions of themselves. Therefore, it would produce cognitive dissonance for an individual to assess a work environment as having a poor fit with themselves, whilst simultaneously reporting high levels of positive organisational attitudes (or the converse) within that environment. Thus, when examining certain dynamics of the relation between PO fit and attitudinal outcomes, such as turnover intentions, it is necessary to ensure that the former remains as objective as possible from the latter. In other words, it is intended that, by using an objective measure, there should be no carryover effect of an individual's assessment of their values on subsequent attitudinal ratings. Secondly, this should minimise susceptibility to potential common method bias, which can inflate reported effect sizes, particularly in studies examining perceived or subjective fit due to their heavy reliance on single-source reporting (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Thirdly, objective measures are widely applicable to employees with all levels of tenure, as employees are not required to have an understanding of the organisation. This is because they are only reporting their own characteristics, as opposed to their degree of similarity with the organisation (as is with perceived/subjective measures) (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006).

Outcome Variables

PO fit has been shown to be related to a range of both behavioural and attitudinal outcomes. PO fit studies employing attitudinal-dependent variables commonly use measures of turnover intentions, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. In accordance with previous literature, this study will employ these three criterion variables. The relationships between these three variables can be exemplified by results from a meta-analysis, conducted by Tett and Myer (1993), which found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (r = .70) and negative relationships

between turnover intentions and job satisfaction (r = -.58) and turnover intentions and organisational commitment (r = -.54).

Turnover Intentions

Turnover intentions is conceived as a "conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation" (Tett & Myer, 1993, p. 262), and reflects an overall rejection of the work situation. In the last two decades, a large amount of research has been dedicated to predictive relationships concerning employees' voluntary turnover with their company (Tett & Myer, 1993). These relationships often include antecedents of turnover intentions, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Turnover intentions is typically described as the last cognition sequence in the turnover process and has been shown to be the strongest predictor of turnover (r = *.45;* Tett & Myer, 1993*),* illustrating the impact of turnover intention findings on bottom-line effects within an organisation. Research results have repeatedly shown a negative relationship between PO fit and turnover. For example ρ = -.21 by Verquer et al. (2003), ρ = -.35 by Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) and r = -.37 by Chatman (1991).

Hypothesis 1): That PO fit will be negatively and weakly associated with turnover intentions

Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction is generally considered a multifaceted construct reflecting an employee's affective attitude to the job, either in its entirety or in relation to particular aspects of the job (Tett & Myer, 1993). It is argued that the extent of employee job satisfaction reflects the cumulative level of met expectations concerning features of their job (Porter & Steers, 1973). When the accumulation of unmet expectations becomes sufficiently large, there is less job satisfaction and a higher probability of withdrawal

behaviour (Pearson, 1991). As this research is primarily exploratory, a broad measure of job satisfaction is desirable; therefore, items pertaining to several aspects of job satisfaction will be utilised. Previous research has educed a positive relationship between PO fit and job satisfaction. For example, a meta-analysis by Kristof-Brown et al., (2005) found a strong positive relationship of $\rho = .44$, a meta analysis by Verquer et al., (2003) found a relationship of $\rho = .28$ and, lastly, Chatman (1991) found a significant correlation of $r = .35$.

Hypothesis 2): That PO fit will be positively associated with job satisfaction

Organisational Commitment

Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979), who have done a lot of the foundational research on employee commitment to an organisation, characterise it as a "strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation, and a strong desire to maintain membership in an organisation" (p. 226). There are three primary types of organisational commitment. The first is affective commitment, which includes identification with and involvement in the organisation, whereby employees remain with the organisation because they want to do so (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Continuance commitment relates to the awareness of the potential costs of leaving an organisation, which means employees continue employment because they need to. Thirdly, normative commitment refers to employees feeling obliged to remain with the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Affective commitment comes from the employee's psychological attachment to and identification with parts of the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). In general, researchers use the label 'affective commitment' to represent the attitudinal focus and 'continuance commitment' for the behavioural focus of this variable (Fields, 2002). As such, a measure of affective

commitment relating to attitudinal type outcomes is appropriate for this study. This is also consistent with the previous two attitudinal outcome variables employed. Organisational Commitment has been found to have a positive relationship with PO fit: for example ρ = .31 (Verquer et al., 2003) and ρ = .51 (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

Hypothesis 3): That PO fit will be positively associated with organisational commitment

Socialisation

The process of organisational socialisation focuses on how newcomers to an organisation adjust to their surroundings and learn the attitudes, behaviours and skills necessary to operate successfully within their new role (Van Maanen, 1976: Cable & Parsons, 2001). Socialisation is important to PO fit because the "primary goals of socialisation are to ensure the continuity of central values and to provide new employees with a framework for responding to their work environment" (Kim, Cable & Kim, 2005, p. 232). As socialisation has been conceptualised as one of the primary ways in which organisational culture is conveyed and maintained (Bauer, Morrison, & Callister, 1998), it is not surprising that there is a relationship between socialisation and PO fit (for example, r = .51, $p < 0.01$; Kim et al., 2005). Cable and Parsons (2001) found employees reported higher levels of PO fit when firms employed high levels of institutionalised socialisation tactics (the planned set of organisational activities designed to reduce employee uncertainty and ambiguity). The way in which organisations treat and interact with new employees sends messages about what the organisations' values are, what is expected, and what has to be done in order to become a full organisational member (Cable & Parsons, 2001). This illustrates how socialisation practices are an important predictor of how employees might fit into their new environment.

As socialisation has been found to predict PO fit (Saks, Uggerslev, & Fassina, 2007), it would be fruitful to include a measure of socialisation in this study to explore whether this result can be replicated. Therefore, a socialisation tactics measure will be employed in this research. The measure will be adapted from Jones (1986) who derived 3 broad factors of socialisation (context, content and social tactics) from Van Mannen and Schein's (1979) foundational theory of organisational socialisation tactics.

Hypothesis 4): That socialisation will be positively related to PO fit.

Are there Moderating Variables Affecting PO fit – Criterion Relationships?

A relatively neglected, yet potentially nascent area of PO research is that of individual difference variables, for example, personality traits, which may moderate the relationship between PO fit and attitudinal outcomes. Whilst relations between PO fit and antecedent and outcome variables have commonly been examined at a sample level, the area of individual differences altering such relationships remains largely unexplored. Researchers, such as Kristof-Brown et al. (2005), have identified the need for future research to identify personal characteristics that may moderate PO fit and criterion relationships.

Evidence supporting the application of moderator variables to PO fit relationships can be seen in Table 1. The table gives results from a foundational meta-analysis by Verquer et al. (2003), which shows the relationships between an objective style of fit and outcome variables. It is evident that the mean estimated unbiased population correlations (mean *r)* are, at best, weak. As the confidence intervals illustrate, the small to moderate correlations present are varying considerably. For example, the weak relationship of PO fit with Turnover Intentions ($\rho = -.14$) suggests that more individuals remain in organisations

despite a deficiency of PO fit. It remains to be seen why poor-fitting employees stay with the organisation. The explanation for this, I believe, may lie in the existence of personality moderators.

It is recommended that when inconsistent or unexpectedly weak relationships are identified (as is the case here), the potential existence of moderators must be examined (Frazier, Tix & Barron, 2004). This supports the supposition that the effect of PO fit on criterion variables may be differential depending on the level of personality traits individuals possess. Such a claim is consistent with that argued by Hoffman and Woehr (2006), who conducted a meta-analysis involving PO fit and attitudinal variables. Hoffman and Woehr (2006) found that the percentage of variance accounted for by statistical artefacts was small, showing considerable variation remaining in each of the estimated population relationships. Following the identification of a moderating effect of fit measurement type, the percentage of variance accounted for by artefacts still did not exceed 80%. This suggests that additional substantive moderators of the fit-outcome relationship may exist.

Table 1

Meta Analysis of 'Objective-style' PO fit with Three Attitudinal Outcomes

	Mean *r*	ρ	95% CI
Job Satisfaction	.20	.22	.11 - .34
Organisational Commitment	.21	.23	.18 - .29
Turnover Intentions	-.13	-.14	-.05 - -.23

Note. N = 14000+. From Verquer et al. (2003)

In addition, most current organisational research considers the PO fit concept to be applicable across all organisational members. For example, Chatman (1991), who studied fit in terms of the match between organisational and personal values, believes that socialisation processes (how the organisation influences the individual's attitudes, values

and behaviours during membership) uniformly improves one's fit and yields better organisational outcomes. Yet, individual difference research tells us that people vary in their willingness to change their behaviour/values, as well as, perhaps, their sensitivity to PO misfit altogether (Schneider, 2001). For example, misfit may be more salient for individuals with high anxiety, because they constantly appraise their external environment for potential threats (Jackson, 1994) and, hence, would readily notice misfits. Alternatively, it may be the case that highly anxious individuals do not notice misfit at all, as they are preoccupied with other more salient clues and features of their immediate work environment (e.g., stressful events). On the other hand, their less anxious counterparts may be more deliberate and objective in assessing the environment and, thus, would more readily notice misfit. In another scenario, highly cooperative individuals tend to be compliant and adaptive; readily adjusting their behaviour in accordance with their environment (Jackson, 1994). Therefore, such individuals may not be adversely affected by misfit, as they are likely to allow for personally incongruent values in an organisation they work for.

Therefore, two compelling and related research questions are:

1. Do PO fit scores relate to outcomes in the same way for all people?
2. Which personality traits may moderate the relationship between PO fit and attitudinal outcomes?

In other words, I suggest that an individual's sensitivity to misfit in a work environment may depend upon how they score on a particular personality facet. This research aims to test these questions empirically. The target criterion variable in this context will be turnover intentions because this variable is considered most closely linked with practical organisational outcome implications. I will also investigate whether PO fit

has incremental validity over job satisfaction and organizational commitment in predicting turnover intentions.

Personality

Overarching personality taxonomies, akin to the Big Five, are widely accepted as the foundational structure of personality (Burger, 1993). To look in more depth, there are many different facet-level typologies where there exist a handful of facets for each of the major traits. Because higher-order models are so broad, it may be more beneficial to examine personality relationships by employing some of the narrower facet-level traits of these broad constructs. Not only will this deliver a more detailed picture of how personality functions within the PO fit-attitude relationship, but it will also reduce redundancy by removing facets that would not be considered to play a role within this relationship. The Jackson Personality Inventory – Revised (JPI-R; Jackson, 1994) provides a facet-level taxonomy of personality traits.

Cooperativeness. The first facet that will be examined is cooperativeness, which is part of the Agreeableness personality domain. Cooperativeness denotes susceptibility to group norms and social influence (Jackson, 1994). High scorers of cooperativeness can be expected to readily conform to the standards and desires set by others within their social environment in order to follow suit and fit in (Jackson, 1994). Such individuals in an environment with high misfit would not be greatly affected by the misfit, because they would easily acknowledge the values of others whilst not compromising their own. As a result, such individuals would maintain lower levels of turnover intentions than those who scored lower on a scale of cooperativeness, when in an environment characterised by misfit. Thus, it is considered that cooperativeness may positively moderate the relationship between PO fit and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 5): That cooperativeness will moderate the effect of PO fit on turnover intentions, such that PO fit will have a weaker negative relationship with turnover intentions in persons who are cooperative.

Sociability. The second personality variable I propose to examine is sociability (which is part of the Extraversion domain) and this will serve as a control variable. Sociability relates to the tendency to seek out social interaction (Jackson, 1994). Highly sociable people get enjoyment from spending time with others and actively pursue interpersonal relationships (Jackson, 1994). It is nonsensical for sociability to affect value incongruence (misfit) within their work environment; hence, sociability should not affect an individual's sensitivity to misfit. It is valuable to add a control-acting variable, as it will demonstrate the data is behaving as expected and will add credibility should there be significant results regarding the previous hypotheses.

Hypothesis 6): That sociability will not moderate the effect of PO fit on turnover intentions.

Anxiety. The next personality facet moderator is anxiety, (which is part of the Neuroticism domain). People scoring highly on anxiety scales tend to be generally worrisome with regard to day-to-day matters, feel apprehensive about the future, as well as being more easily upset, stressed and experience more guilt (Levitt, 1968) than the average person (Jackson, 1994). Given this, it is not perfectly clear whether highly anxious people might notice misfit more than less-anxious individuals or whether they might fail to notice it at all because of more salient cues operating in their immediate environment (i.e., stressful events, issues with co-workers, supervisors or customers, technical equipment failure, etc). Thus, I believe that anxiety could moderate the PO fit-

turnover intentions relationship because individuals scoring highly in anxiety are different from those who are not highly anxious when it comes to evaluating the same environmental cues.

Hypothesis 7): That anxiety will moderate the effect of PO fit on turnover intentions.

Summary of Research Hypotheses

In sum, the aim of this research is to investigate the presence of moderators within the relationship between PO fit and turnover intention to explore whether it is differential for individuals with varying personality trait scores. Figure 1, below, shows the hypothesised relationships in a pictorial model, whereby PO fit is created by a correlation between personal and organisation values. The direct effects between fit and outcomes are expected to be weak or moderate with parameters falling within ranges previously reported in meta-analyses (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Verquer et al., 2003). The main focus of this study, however, is to inspect whether the relationship between PO fit and turnover intentions will be moderated by cooperativeness (positive moderation), anxiety (positive or negative moderation) or sociability (no moderation).

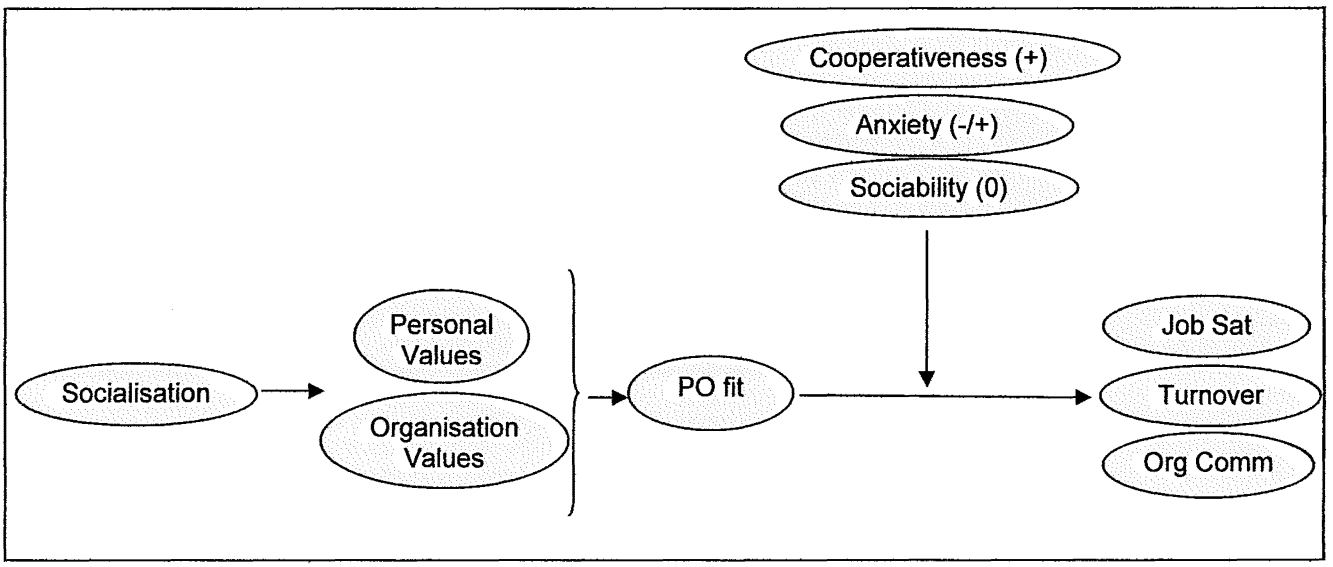

Figure 1. **Hypothesised model for this research**

Method

Participants

A total of 127 employees from a large New Zealand aviation corporation completed the paper and pencil questionnaire for this study. The data collected from 16 of the participants was excluded due to incomplete responses. The final sample of participants ($N = 111$) comprised of 81 males and 30 females.

In terms of age, 33.3% of the participants fell within the *35-44* years age group, 29.7% in the *45-54* age group, 22.5% in the *25-35* age group and 3.6% were from the *24 years or younger* age group. This distribution for age is relatively normal (with a slight negative skew) and is therefore expected to be representative of the population. In relation to tenure, the highest percentage of participants were within the *11+ years* category (52.3%), 15.3% were in the *6-10 years* category, 13.5% were in the *3-5 years* category, 10.8% were in the *less than 1 year* category and 8.1% were in the *1-2 years* of tenure category. The negative skew of the tenure distribution shows the sample organisation has high rates of retention.

In relation to job complexity, 48.6% of participants responded that their job was *more complex* than the average job in their region, 46.8% selected *somewhat more complex*, 1.8% selected *somewhat less complex*, and 2.7% selected their job as being *not as complex* as the average job in their region. This strong negative skew is not surprising given that the majority of participants were air traffic controllers; a considerably complex job. Approval from the ethics committee was not required as the questionnaire was anonymous and job performance records were not sought.

Procedure

Pilot study. Before primary data collection, the questionnaire was piloted on five post-graduate psychology university students to check for cogency, comprehension, and completion time.

Main study. The questionnaire was prefaced by a cover letter (refer to Appendix A) that detailed the purpose of the research, assured confidentiality and anonymity of responses, indicated the organisation's endorsement of the research and provided contact details of the author and supervisor. The organisation was supplied with paper copies of the questionnaire. Questionnaires were then distributed internally via the HR manager to three nation-wide centres. Staff completed the questionnaire in their own time and returned them to a central location within the organisation in a sealed envelope over a four-week period.

Measures

Four demographic questions on gender, age, tenure and job complexity preceded the scales pertaining to the research model. In addition, eight separate scales were used to measure predictor, moderator and criterion variables. Predictor variables included PO fit and organisational socialisation scales. Moderator variables consisted of three personality facets: cooperativeness, anxiety and sociability. The outcome variables were job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions. A copy of the questionnaire is included in Appendix A.

Individual Value Profile (IVP). The organisational value measure was created by Chernyshenko (2007). The measure required respondents to rank 15 common organisational values from 1 to 15, according to how indicative the values are of them.

The 15 values used in the measure were obtained by studying commonalities among 3 major value instruments: the Rokeach Value Survey (Rokeach, 1973), the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (Gay, Weiss, Hendel, Dawis & Lofquist, 1975), and the OCP (O'Reilly et al., 1991). The ranking task was similar to what is used in the OCP, in which respondents were asked to Q-sort values according to their preference of the value in their ideal organisation. Each of the 15 values had a brief description alongside it outlining what the value pertained to. An example of a value was 'Achievement', which had a corresponding description of a "place that emphasises results, individual performance and competition".

Organisational Value Profile (OVP). The Organisational Value Profile was created by using the same organisational value set (Chernyshenko, 2007), as in the IVP, to promote benefits associated with the measurement of commensurate dimensions (O'Reilly et al., 1991). To obtain the organisational profile, I used senior-level managers that were familiar with the organisation and its environment. These subject matter experts (SMEs) were asked to rank the 15 organisational values from most to least representative of the organisation. Rater agreement was evaluated by computing reliability analyses to assess the level of congruence between the raters. Because consistency between the raters is of great importance in the creation of a representative OVP, SME 3 was deleted due to a low level of agreement with the remaining five raters. After deleting SME 3, coefficient of agreement increased from .758 to .773, which demonstrates a reasonably high level of internal agreement. To derive the OVP, individual ranks were summed, averaged and re-ranked in accordance from high to low (see Table 2). The resulting profile was then taken as the OVP. This profile was the 'organisation' component of the PO fit score. Scale statistics can be seen in Table 3, including the final Cronbach's Alpha of .77.

Table 2

Value Ranking Statistics of 5 SMEs Contributing to the Organisational Value Profile

Values	Mean SME Rankings	S.D of SME Rankings	Final Organisational Value Ranking
Security	3.80	1.92	1
Ability Utilisation	4.80	3.42	2
Detail	5.40	4.10	3
Responsibility	5.60	4.56	4
Recognition	5.60	1.52	5
Compliance	5.80	4.60	6
Compensation	6.40	3.85	7
Achievement	6.80	2.95	8
Variety	7.60	4.28	9
Comfort	7.80	2.86	10
Creativity	10.20	3.11	11
Social Status	11.20	3.63	12
Advancement	12.00	1.87	13
Independence	13.40	3.05	14
Authority	13.60	2.07	15

Table 3

Scale Statistics for the Organisational Value Profile

SMEs	Mean	S.D	CITC	S.E.M	Cronbach's Alpha
Scale	*40*	*16.19*		*7.76*	*0.77*
SME1			0.48		
SME2			0.64		
SME4			0.52		
SME5			0.62		
SME6			0.48		

PO fit Score ('Objective Fit'). In accordance with methods used in the OCP, each participant's PO fit score was obtained by correlating their individual value profile with the established Organisational Value Profile. This fit score correlation is named 'Objective

Fit' (OF). The OF measure in this study had a normal distribution (refer to Figure 2) with a mean of .36 and a standard deviation of .25. As expected, there were relatively few individuals with negative or near zero fit scores, as these people are expected to have left the organisation. To give an indication of the OF distribution, the variable can be divided into three levels such that 'low' OF scores fall within a range of -.59 - .31, 'medium' OF scores fall within a range of .32 - .49 and 'high' OF scores fall between .50 - .85. A histogram of OF can be seen in Figure 2.

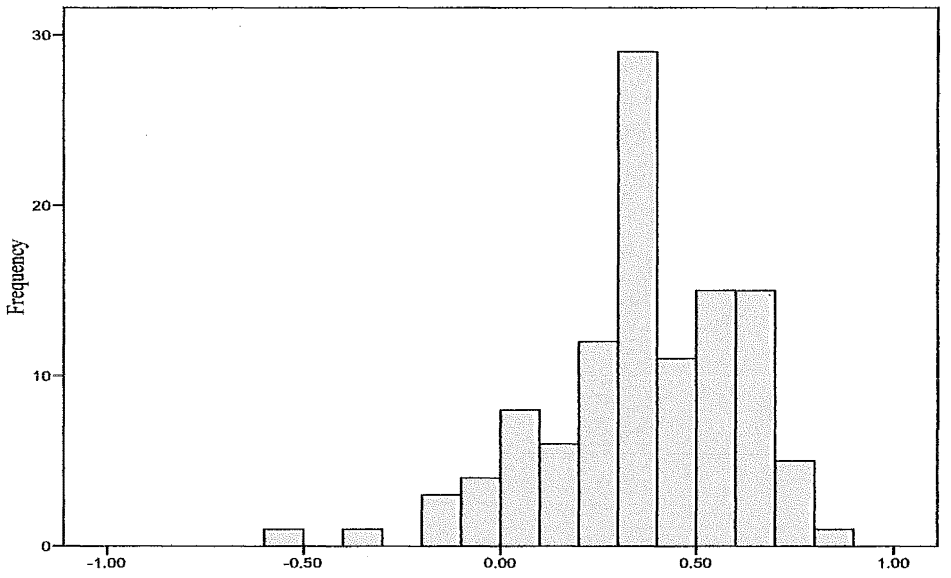

Figure 2. **Distribution of Objective Fit variable.**

Personality. The three personality scales utilised (cooperativeness, anxiety and sociability) each comprised 10 items developed by Chernyshenko (2007). Participants responded on a four point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 4 = *strongly agree)* and ratings were summed after reverse coding to produce a score for each participant on the respective scale.

Anxiety - The coefficient alpha for anxiety was .71. A sample item is: "I don't get startled or shaken up easily" (reverse scored).

Sociability – The coefficient alpha for sociability in this study was .82 and a sample item from the scale is: "I couldn't go the whole day without talking to someone".

Cooperativeness – Due to the 10 cooperativeness items loading onto two separate factors, it was decided to retain and continue results using the two resulting factors as subscales of the cooperativeness variable. Full discussion of this analysis follows the Measures section. Based on examination of item content, the two factors were named compliance ($\alpha = .75$) and pleasantness ($\alpha = .62$). A sample item of compliance is: "I'd rather give in to what others want than risk a conflict". A sample item of pleasantness is: "I am on good terms with nearly everyone".

Job Satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured using 13 items, 5 of which were adapted from Spector's (1985) Job Satisfaction Survey, which, in its full form, measures 9 facets of job satisfaction, and, in the past, has been found to have a coefficient alpha of .89. The remaining items were adapted from Chernyshenko (2007). Ratings were made on a five point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree,* midpoint of 3 = *neutral)* and summed after reverse coding to provide an overall job satisfaction score. For the current study the alpha coefficient was .83. A sample item is: "I look forward to coming to work".

Organisational Commitment. Organisational commitment was measured using 11 items, the first ten of which are sourced from The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ; Mowday et al., 1979), as well as one item from Meyer and Allen (1997). The OCQ is widely used, and primarily measures affective commitment. Research has shown the full measure to have coefficient alphas ranging from .81 to .93 (Fields, 2002). For this scale, participants responded on a five point Likert scale (1 = *strongly*

disagree to 5 = *strongly agree,* midpoint of 3 = *neutral*). Ratings were summed after reverse scoring to produce an overall organisational commitment score. For the current study the alpha coefficient was .92. A sample item is: "I talk up this organisation to my friends as a great organisation to work for".

*Turnover Intentions (*TI). Intentions of leaving an organisation were measured using 10 items, the first eight of which are adapted from Chernyshenko (2007). The remaining two items are adapted from the 1991 General Social Survey (Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1990, cited in Marsden, Kelleberg & Cook, 1993) as well as from Meyer and Allen (1997). Ratings were made on a five point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree,* midpoint of 3 = *neutral)* and summed after reverse coding to provide an overall TI score. The alpha coefficient for this study was .86 and a sample item is: "I have thought about leaving the organisation".

Socialisation. Organisational socialisation was broken down into two sub-scales. The first consisted of 3 items adapted from Chatman (1991) with responses on a four point Likert scale (1 = *two or less*, 2 = *3-5*, 3 = *6-8* and 4 = *10+*). An example item is: 'How many days have you spent in a formal organisation-run training class in the last 12 months?' (Time in Training). The second component was adapted from Jones (1986) and comprised 17 items relating to context, social and content perceptions of socialisation. These 17 items were selected from the original scale based on their appropriateness for this study. Reponses were on a four point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 4 = *strongly agree).* A sample item is: "I have been generally left alone to discover what my role should be in this organisation" (reverse scored). Responses were summed following

reverse scoring to produce an overall socialisation score for each participant. The alpha coefficient for the current study was .78.

Factor and Reliability Analyses of Scales

Initially, the data was cleaned and screened for missing or incorrect values using frequency statistics. Next, each of the scales employed in the questionnaire was analysed using factor analysis in order to ascertain that each common factor was accounting for the pattern of correlations among the measured variables (Fabrigar, MacCallum, Wegener, & Strahan, 1999). Single-factor exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using Principal Axis Factoring was performed for each of the individual scales, excepting the values measure. The Principal Factor Analysis (PFA) method was selected, as it is used to recognize the structure underlying variables, as well as measuring the latent factors themselves. This method generalises to real-world phenomena more effectively than Principal Components Analysis, which finds the best ways to combine abstract variables (Fabrigar et al., 1999). The statistical programme SPSS 15.0 for Windows was used to perform all statistical analyses.

Unidimensionality of each of the scales was examined by using a single factor, EFA. Upon examination of the initial Factor Matrix relating to each scale, it is desirable to have a high eigenvalue ratio of the 1st and 2nd factors identified. A high ratio (for example, greater than 4) shows unidimensionality in that the first factor is accounting for a sufficient amount of variance in the items that load upon it in relation to the proportion of variance a second factor would account for if it was selected. The 1st-2nd factor eigenvalue ratios of each of the scales ranged from 2.05 to 7.22 (see Table 7). Whilst these are lower than desired, the scree tests support the unidimensionality of all of the scales,

except cooperativeness. This scale will be discussed separately. The variance accounted for by the first factor extracted in each of the scales ranged from 24.5 – 38.36% (see Table 7).

In association with this eigenvalue ratio heuristic, the scree test (Cattell, 1966) was also examined to identify the number of factors embedded in the data. The scree test considers the differences between eigenvalue sizes for factors, whereby the researcher ceases extracting factors at a point where a successive factor provides a notably greater increase in accuracy than the factor preceding it (Lee & Ashton, 2007). All of the scales, except one, presented a scree plot, where one major factor was evident before the first noteworthy 'jump' or 'elbow' between two successive factors on the curve occurred. This unclear scree plot representation was for the personality facet, cooperativeness, which will be discussed shortly.

After a visual examination of the scree plots, the factor loadings shown in the pattern matrix were examined, as they estimate the pattern of relationships between the common factors extracted and the measured items (Fabrigar et al., 1999). Subsequent to the pattern matrix inspection, four items from within the socialisation scale (items S2, S3, 7 and 9) were eliminated because they were loading unclearly onto more than one factor. Remaining items in all scales presented adequate factor loadings with a range of .12 - .89, as seen in Tables 4 - 6. Whilst some of the loadings may be lower than conventional cut-off levels, for example, .3/.4 (Kline, 1994), it was of importance to retain a higher number of items to maintain variance and support power levels.

In the case of the personality scale originally named cooperativeness, the scree plot showed two distinct factors, as shown in Figure 3 below. Because of this observation,

combined with the possibility that under factoring may introduce more error into factor loadings, an alternative solution was carried out specifying a two-factor model. An oblique rotation was performed employing a 'direct oblimin' algorithm, in order to rotate the obtained factor axes to produce a 'simple structure' for easier interpretation (Lee & Ashton, 2007). The results showed that items loaded clearly onto two factors; thus, through interpretability and content analysis, it was decided that the cooperativeness scale contained two factors. From examination of the item content, the first factor was named 'compliance' (5 items) and the second, 'pleasantness' (5 items). These items can be seen in Table 4. Because the two factors were relatively uncorrelated (r = .02, p > .05), both were retained as separate scales in further analyses.

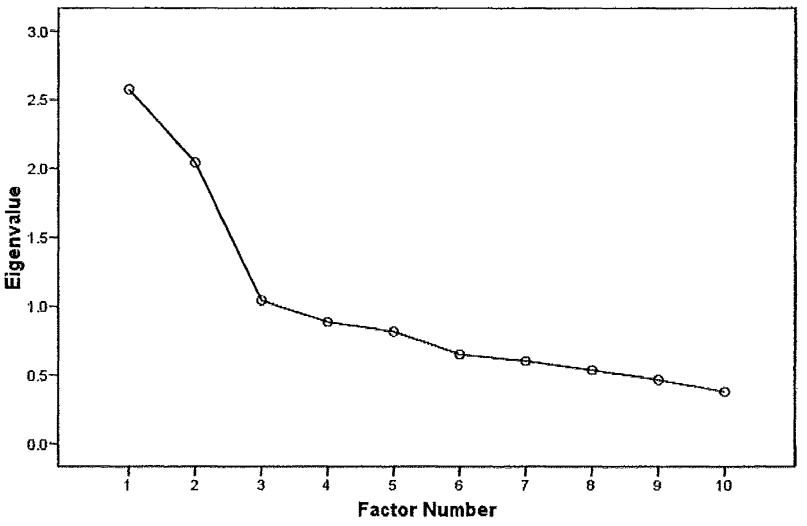

***Figure 3*. Scree Plot of Cooperativeness Factor before scale split.**

Following the EFA for all scales, items were reverse scored into new variables in accordance with the direction indicated in the pattern matrix. As the factor analysis function is unable to ascertain the direction of the scale, reversing was conducted to enable high scores on all items to represent higher levels of the construct.

With this section of the factor analysis complete, the final scale items were summed to create a composite for each scale. Reliability analyses were performed for each of the eight scales. Corrected item total correlations (CITC), which indicate each item's correlation with the remaining items in that factor, were examined as a measure of internal reliability. None of the items present in any of the scales illustrated negative CITC's, which indicates that each individual item positively correlated with the remaining items within the same scale. During this analysis, item 12 from the anxiety scale was eliminated for poor properties, primarily because deleting it would increase the alpha from 0.707 to .712. Key item-level statistics for sociability, anxiety, compliance, pleasantness, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, TI and socialisation can be seen in Tables 4 - 6 below.

Table 4

Scale Statistics for Sociability, Anxiety, Tolerance and Pleasantness

Item no.	Mean	S.D	Factor Loadings	CITC
Sociability				
3	2.98	.65	-.59	.53
5	2.93	.68	-.51	.45
8	2.38	.87	.55	.49
10	1.83	.71	.56	.50
19	2.53	.69	.53	.48
25	2.02	.59	-.60	.53
28	2.28	.62	-.53	.47
29	2.76	.68	-.58	.51
32	2.75	.56	.48	.45
39	2.30	.65	.66	.60
Anxiety				
1	1.94	.68	.63	.50
4	2.37	.74	.36	.31
13	2.16	.64	.56	.48
21	2.86	.63	-.56	.45
22	2.84	.69	.40	.33
24	2.18	.62	-.50	.42
31	2.08	.68	.30	.26
38	2.45	.79	-.43	.33
40	2.46	.66	-.51	.44
Compliance				
7	2.31	.64	-.60	.51
17	2.13	.51	.56	.47
20	2.06	.53	.65	.54
26	2.13	.51	-.60	.52
37	2.14	.59	-.68	.57
Pleasantness				
30	2.75	.64	.47	.36
33	2.93	.58	-.36	.29
34	2.94	.54	.46	.38
35	2.75	.68	.69	.48
36	3.04	.50	.54	.40

Table 5

Scale Statistics for Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment and Turnover Intentions

Item no.	Mean	S.D	Factor Loadings	CITC
Job Satisfaction				
1	3.77	.83	.42	.42
2	3.92	.82	.53	.50
3	3.23	1.22	-.47	.40
4	3.29	1.04	.63	.56
5	3.95	.99	-.43	.38
6	4.00	.57	.48	.46
7	3.86	.81	.16	.15
8	2.81	1.00	-.52	.44
9	3.41	1.02	-.60	.57
10	4.03	.53	.24	.27
11	3.10	1.14	.77	.67
12	3.02	1.05	-.79	.69
13	3.12	.98	.62	.56
Organisational Commitment				
1	3.58	1.05	.69	.66
2	3.64	1.01	.86	.82
3	3.60	1.06	-.75	.71
4	2.31	1.02	.64	.61
5	3.77	.89	.85	.81
6	3.04	1.05	.74	.71
7	3.61	.96	.86	.83
8	2.60	1.00	-.65	.63
9	2.98	.97	.79	.75
10	2.94	1.04	-.53	.52
11	3.25	1.05	-.61	.59
Turnover Intentions				
1	2.57	1.25	.89	.82
2	2.32	1.16	.82	.76
3	3.20	1.28	.79	.74
4	3.25	1.27	.83	.76
5	2.71	1.22	.34	.30
6	2.61	1.24	.73	.69
7	3.14	1.39	.55	.50
8	2.72	1.34	.86	.81
9	3.55	.97	-.27	.26
10	3.41	1.14	-.12	.11

Table 6

Scale Statistics for Socialisation

Item no.	Mean	S.D	Factor Loadings	CITC
S3	2.16	1.13	.23	.24
1	2.22	.99	.20	.22
2	2.51	.81	-.24	.23
3	2.57	.88	.68	.57
4	2.96	.77	-.40	.32
5	2.69	.90	-.60	.53
6	3.20	.62	-.42	.42
8	3.00	.65	-.32	.30
10	2.85	.72	-.83	.69
11	2.65	.79	-.61	.47
12	2.73	.67	.63	.53
13	2.13	.78	.56	.46
14	2.49	.77	-.28	.27
15	2.52	.72	-.42	.39

Analyses

To test the hypotheses, a combination of bivariate correlations and multiple regression procedures were used. Correlations were used to test predicted relationships relating to hypotheses 1 – 4. Hierarchical multiple regression was used to test the moderator hypotheses (H5 – 7).

In order to test H5 – 7, moderator effects were examined using hierarchical multiple regression analyses. This data analysis method involves centring predictor variables, creating product terms and structuring the hierarchical multiple regression equation. As all the variables in this study are continuous, no coding was necessary. Historically, continuous variable interactions have often been analysed by categorising continuous variables in order to examine them using analysis of variance. However, by using methods such as median splits, many deleterious effects can occur (Cohen, Cohen, West & Aiken, 2003). Negative effects include decreased measured relationships between

variables, reduced power and, potentially, the production of spurious main effects, such as when dichotomised data produces significant predictor effects when, in fact, they do not exist in the population (Cohen et al., 2003). Consequently, this strategy is ill-advised and its use is actively discouraged (Cohen et al., 2003). The first step in the analysis involves centring or standardizing continuous predictor and moderator variables, as is recommended by Frazier et al. (2004). This is typically carried out to reduce multicollinearity problems among the predictor, moderator and interaction variables (Frazier et al., 2004). In accordance with this recommendation, the predictor and all moderator variables were centred, by subtracting each scale's mean from its raw scores. Following this, product terms were created by multiplying together the centred predictor variable (OF) with each of the centred moderator variables (anxiety, sociability, pleasantness and compliance). These terms then represent the interactions between the predictor and each of the moderators (Frazier et al., 2004). These centred predictor and moderator variables are used in all of the hierarchical multiple regression analyses in this study. Following the creation of the interaction variables, the hierarchical multiple regression equation can be established and carried out.

The statistical evaluation of a moderator hypothesis requires specifying a hierarchical multiple regression model, where variables are entered into the regression equation in a series of two steps (Frazier et al., 2004). The first model regresses the dependent variable (DV; Y) on the independent variables (IV; X) and moderator variables (M). The second model then adds the product of X and M (Cohen, 1978). The hierarchical model is specified on SPSS by entering the IV and M in the first block and adding their product (M*X) in the second block. The equation below shows the analysis, where βo is the model constant or intercept and B1, B2 and B3 are the unstandardized partial

regression coefficients (regression 'weights' or 'slopes') for X, M and the M*X product, respectively (Chaplin, 2007).

$$Y = B_0 + B_1X + B_2M \quad (1)$$

$$Y = B_0 + B_1X + B_2M + B_3M*X \quad (2)$$

The statistical evaluation of the moderator effects represented in these models is based on the increment in the degree to which the model with the product term(s) fit the observed data over the degree to which the model without the product term fits the data (Chaplin, 2007). In standard (ordinary least squares; OLS) regression, the increment in fit is the increase in the squared multiple correlation (R^2) obtained by adding the product terms (also called the squared semipartial correlation between the product term and the Y) (Chaplin, 2007). If the R^2 change is significant when the M*X interaction term is added to the model in stage 2, there is a significant moderator effect present (Chaplin, 2007).

Interpretation of results of hierarchical multiple regression, when testing for moderator effects, involves three parts. This consists of 1) interpreting predictor and moderator variable effects; 2) testing the significance of the moderator effect; and 3) plotting any significant moderator effects found (Frazier et al., 2004). When interpreting the effects of the predictor and moderator variables there are some important guidelines to bear in mind. Firstly, when employing a multiple regression model examining moderator effects, the interpretation of the predictor and moderator relationships with the criterion variable is unique to other regression models. Such relationships are interpreted as conditional 'first-order' effects rather than main effects (Frazier et al, 2004). This is because the effects occur at the value of 0 for other variables included in the model (Frazier et al., 2004). In other words, the regression coefficient for OF represents the

regression of TI on OF at a value not defined for the personality moderator (i.e. 0). In the same way, the regression coefficient for each personality variable represents the regression of TI on the personality moderator at a value not defined for OF (i.e. 0). Another point on the interpretation of the results is that the unstandardized coefficient (*B*) should be used for interpretation rather than the standardized regression coefficient (β) (Frazier et al., 2004). This is because, in equations including interaction terms, the β coefficients are not properly standardized for the interaction variables and, therefore, are not interpretable (Frazier et al., 2004). The plotting of significant moderator effects will be explored in the Results section.

Results

The final scale statistics for all scales, except for OF, can be seen in Table 7 below. Importantly, all of the final scales presented reasonably strong Cronbach's alpha levels (ranging from .62 - .92), representing sufficient levels of internal reliability. All scale distributions were approximately normal, despite the fact that the majority of participants were air-traffic controllers. The standard error of measurement values for the scales ranged from .99 – 3.08, indicating approximately how many standard errors the participants' observed scores fluctuated from the true score.

Table 7

Scale Statistics for all Scales

Scales	Mean	S.D	No. of items	% of variance accounted for	1-2 factor ratio	S.E.M	Cronbach's Alpha
Sociability	24.75	4.15	10	31.40	2.77	1.76	*.82*
Anxiety	21.34	3.38	9	23.18	2.21	1.82	*.71*
Compliance	10.77	1.97	5	38.36	2.82	.99	*.75*
Pleasantness	14.40	1.87	5	26.35	2.15	1.15	*.62*
Job Satisfaction	45.50	6.98	13	29.17	2.05	2.88	.83
Organisational Commitment	35.32	8.33	11	53.69	7.22	2.36	*.92*
Turnover Intentions	29.49	8.24	10	45.38	4.19	3.08	*.86*
Socialisation	36.68	5.73	14	24.50	2.75	2.69	*.78*

The correlation matrix for all scales is presented in Table 8. The relationships between the attitudinal outcome variables in this study replicate those found in previous literature, as expected (for example, Tett & Myer, 1993). This can be seen by the positive strong correlation between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (r = .51, p < .01), the strong negative correlation between TI and organisational commitment (r = -.57, p < .01) and, lastly, the moderate negative relationship between TI and job satisfaction (r

= -.42, $p < .01$). However, because the sample size was small to detect weak to moderate effects, hypotheses 1 - 4 were not supported as PO Fit did not significantly correlate with TI (r = -.08, $p > .05$), job satisfaction (r = .06, $p > .05$), organisational commitment (r = .00, $p > .05$) or socialisation (r = .17, $p > .05$). The observed effects, however, were within ranges reported by previous meta-analyses. Interestingly, the correlation between PO fit and tenure (r = .23, $p < .05$) came out stronger than what was found by Kim et al., (2005) (ρ= .03). This possibly indicates that value congruence is critical for this organisation and most misfitting individuals have already left the organization. There was no significant relationship between PO fit and age or gender, which is similar to the study conducted in association with the OCP (O'Reilly et al., 1991). Other than the relationship between the criterion variables, turnover had a negative significant correlation with the personality variable, pleasantness (r = -.22, $p < .05$) and tenure (r = .26, $p < .01$).

Table 8

Correlations of all Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Objective Fit												
2. Turnover Intentions	-.08											
3. Job Satisfaction	.06	-.42**										
4. Socialisation	.17	-.26**	.40**									
5. Organisational Commitment	.00	-.57**	.51**	.28**								
6. Sociability	.01	.13	.20*	.12	.10							
7. Compliance	.15	-.16	-.05	.03	.22*	-.31**						
8. Pleasantness	.01	-.22*	.28**	.24*	.34**	.13	.02					
9. Anxiety	-.06	.03	-.09	-.31**	.06	-.26**	.36**	-.20*				
10. Gender	.00	-.17	.19*	.17	.16	.07	.14	.06	.21*			
11. Age	.12	-.03	-.19*	-.11	.00	.02	.07	-.12	-.07	-.40**		
12. Tenure	.23*	.26**	-.45**	-.07	-.23*	.01	.09	-.10	-.04	-.28**	.62**	
13. Job Complexity	.09	.09	-.12	-.11	-.21*	.04	-.14	.09	-.21*	-.41**	.25**	.27**

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

N = 111

Moderator Results

The procedure described in the method section was carried out for each of the moderator variables, where X = Objective Fit and Y= Turnover Intentions. Results from these analyses can be seen in the text that follows, as well as the corresponding Tables 9-12.

Pleasantness. Using the stepwise 'Enter' method on SPSS, centred variables of OF and Pleasantness were entered into Block 1, and the interaction term of centred OF x Pleasantness was entered into block 2. The hierarchical multiple regression analysis resulted in an overall significant model (F (3,107) = 2.70, $p < 0.05$) accounting for 4% of the variance (Adjusted R^2 = .04) with an F change statistic of 1.80. The information from Block 2 of the analysis is presented in Table 9, which demonstrates that pleasantness was the only significant predictor of turnover, whilst a significant moderator effect was not found for OF x Pleasantness. This does not support hypothesis 5, relating to cooperativeness (recall that pleasantness was derived from the cooperativeness construct).

Table 9

Moderator Regression Analysis of Pleasantness moderating Objective Fit predicting Turnover Intentions

Block	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Block 2:					
Pleasantness	-.90	.40	-.21*		
Objective Fit	-2.73	3.00	-.09		
Pleasantness x Objective Fit	-2.08	1.55	-.13	.07*	.02

* p < .05
** p < .01

Compliance. The same procedure, used to test compliance, produced a non-significant model of F (3,107) = 1.13, p = .34, accounting for .04% of the variance in TI

(Adjusted $R^2 = .00$). The F change statistic was .20. The results shown in Table 10 illustrate that there was no significant moderator effect of compliance and OF when predicting TI. This does not support hypothesis 5, relating to cooperativeness (from which compliance is derived).

Table 10

Moderator Regression Analysis of Compliance moderating Objective Fit predicting Turnover Intentions

Block	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Block 2:					
Compliance	-.62	.40	-.15		
Objective Fit	-1.84	3.10	-.06		
Compliance x Objective Fit	.70	1.54	.04	.03	.00

* p < .05
** p < .01

Sociability. The sociability facet moderator analysis produced a non-significant model (F (3,107) = 1.00, $p = .41$) that accounted for very little of the variance (adjusted $R^2 = .00$), with an F change statistic of .16. Furthermore, the interaction of sociability and OF predicting TI was not significant as shown in Table 11. This provides support for hypothesis 6, where no moderation effect of sociability when OF predicts TI was predicted.

Table 11

Moderator Regression Analysis of Sociability moderating Objective Fit predicting Turnover Intentions

Block	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Block 2:					
Sociability	.25	.19	.13		
Objective Fit	-2.60	3.07	-.08		
Sociability x Objective Fit	.34	.84	.04	.03	.00

* p < .05
** p < .01

Anxiety. The moderator analysis with anxiety resulted in a significant model (F (3,107) = 2.84, $p < .05$) accounting for 5% of the variance in TI (Adjusted $R^2 = .05$), with an F change statistic of 7.65. As represented in Table 12, the unstandardized regression coefficient for centred OF was -2.01, $p = .50$, meaning there was a non-significant negative relationship between OF and TI in the sample. The unstandardized regression coefficient for centred Anxiety was .02, $p = .94$, showing that there was a non-significant positive relationship between anxiety and TI. The unstandardized regression coefficient for the interaction term was 2.81, $p < .01$. As the interaction term is significant over and above the variance accounted for by OF and anxiety, it demonstrates that there is a significant moderator effect of anxiety, when OF is predicting turnover. This evidence provides support for hypothesis 7. Note that the moderation effect is very strong, considering that the sample size was relatively small and the power to detect significant interaction was low.

Table 12

Moderator Regression Analysis of Anxiety moderating Objective Fit predicting Turnover Intentions

Block	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Block 2:					
Anxiety	.02	.22	.01		
Objective Fit	-2.01	3.00	-.06		
Anxiety x Objective Fit	2.81	1.01	.26**	.07**	.07**

* p < .05

** p < .01

Because a significant moderation effect was determined between anxiety and OF in predicting TI, it was important to represent it pictorially for the purpose of interpretation (Frazier et al., 2004). An effective way to do this is to compute predicted values of the criterion variable at different levels of the moderator variable (Cohen et al., 2003). The predicted values obtained from this calculation may then be used to create a graphical

figure, illustrating the form of the moderator effect. For the purposes of interpretation, the raw score variables, rather than the centred variables, were used to demonstrate this moderator effect. To do this, the distribution and spread of the data for anxiety was inspected. It was decided to split the data into approximately two even groups representing low (scores ≤ 21) and high anxiety (scores ≥ 22). Predicted scores for TI regressed on OF could then be created for each of the two anxiety levels. The two resulting variables were then graphed to illustrate the regression slopes of OF predicting TI for low and high anxiety individuals. This is shown in Figure 4, where the interaction effect is evident.

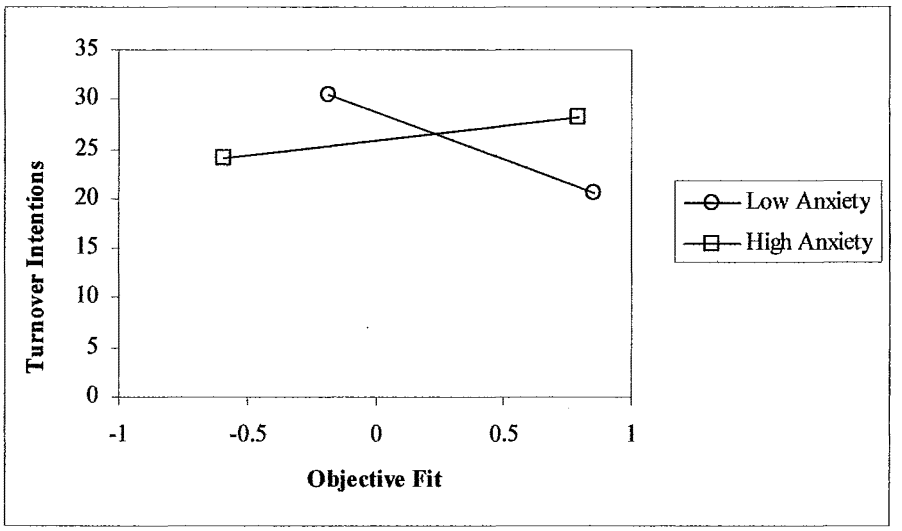

Figure 4. **Line graph of the moderation effect of Anxiety when Objective Fit predicts Turnover Intentions.**

As there were no significant first order effects of either anxiety or OF predicting TI, it is only when an interaction term of both is inputted into the analysis that a significant predictor of TI is found. Figure 4, above, illustrates that the moderation effect of anxiety is greatest at the extreme ends of the OF data range, and is least when a small, positive value of OF is observed. It is demonstrated that individuals low in anxiety and with a lower level of OF, exhibit higher TI levels. However, as the degree of fit in such individuals increases,

their level of TI decreases. This result is what is commonly expected by PO fit theories where there is a negative correlation between PO fit and TI (r = -.27, p < .05, for individuals scoring ≤ 21 on the anxiety scale). However, with the high anxiety group, this relationship does not hold. If anything, there is an opposite trend with more PO fit resulting in greater levels of TI (r = .11, p > .05, for individuals scoring ≥ 22 on the anxiety scale).

Inclusion of Covariates

Following the establishment of anxiety as a significant moderator, the strength of this moderation effect was explored by adding covariates into the regression model. This was done by adding an extra step before the existing 2-block structure used previously. This involved inputting various covariates at Block 1, OF and Anxiety at Block 2, and then the interaction term at Block 3. The covariates explored included variables that significantly correlated with TI, which were tenure, pleasantness, job satisfaction and organisational commitment (refer Table 8). All of the related variables, except organisational commitment, produced results where the interaction term continued to provide a significant change in variance accounted for. In other words, the OF x anxiety moderation effect remained after controlling for variance in tenure, pleasantness and job satisfaction. The resulting significant model F (6,104) = 5.51, p < 0.01, accounted for 20% of the variance accounted for (Adjusted R^2 = .20). The F change statistic was 5.01. See Table 13 for information presented from Block 3 of the analysis.

Table 13

Moderator Regression Analysis of Anxiety moderating Objective Fit predicting Turnover Intentions, with Tenure, Pleasantness and Job Satisfaction as covariates

Block	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Block 3:					
Tenure	.68	.58	.12		
Pleasantness	-.39	.40	-.09		
Job Satisfaction	-.37	.12	-.32**		
Centered Anxiety	-.08	.21	-.03		
Objective fit	-2.47	2.88	-.08		
Anxiety x objective fit	2.13	.95	.20*	.24**	.04*

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to assess whether the understanding of the existing weak relationship between objective PO fit scores and TI can be partially attributable to the presence of individual difference moderators (i.e., personality traits). Traditionally, PO fit research has focused solely on sample-level effects, thus, ignoring the influence of other individual difference variables. As such, this study represents an important attempt to integrate organisational and individual difference research.

Of the seven hypotheses proposed in this study, H1-4 were designed to replicate previously established relationships in the literature (relationships between PO fit and TI, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and socialisation). As anticipated, individuals scoring higher in OF also had lower levels of TI, but a significant correlation was not found; therefore hypothesis 1 was not supported. Individuals with higher levels of OF also had higher levels of job satisfaction, as expected, but the correlation was not significant; therefore, hypothesis 2 was not supported. There was virtually no relationship between individuals' levels of OF and organisational commitment, hence hypothesis 3 was not supported. In addition, individuals with higher levels of OF also had higher levels of

organisational socialisation. However, the relationship was not significant, meaning that hypothesis 4 was not supported.

There may be several reasons why these relationships, which have been substantiated in the past (e.g. Verquer et al., 2003; Kim et al., 2005), were not replicated in this study. Firstly, the sample was collected from a single organisation with high levels of tenure. Therefore, the variability of both predictor and criterion variables may have been restricted due to naturally occurring adverse selection (i.e., many misfitting individuals may have already left the organisation). Secondly, the OF measure used for this study was deficient. Although I made every effort to ensure that the OVP was derived in accordance with best practices (i.e., ensuring that SMEs were familiar with the organisation and exhibited high levels of agreement), it may be the case that a larger number of SMEs could have improved the quality of organisational rankings and, thus, the OF scores. Thirdly, it may be the case that value congruence is simply a less salient variable for employees with highly specialised and stressful jobs, such as air traffic controllers. In general, individuals may actually have a restricted awareness of what their values are, as well as those of the organisation in which they work. As Rousseau (1990, cited in O'Reilly et al., 1991) has noted, values as a part of culture can be considered a construction of reality. Therefore, they are not easily accessible to individuals, perhaps due to them existing at an unconscious level.

Of course, the observed effect may be reflective of true relationships between OF and outcomes. The apparent lack of significance in this study may simply be due to the sample size being small (N = 111), resulting in the lack of power to detect weak effects. However, based on previous meta-analyses, it was expected to observe only weak effects for OF scores.

Moderator Hypotheses

Overall, there were mixed results in the testing of the moderating hypotheses (H5-7). As expected, there was no significant effect of sociability moderating the OF-TI relationship, which provided support for hypothesis 6. However, how individuals scored on pleasantness or compliance did not significantly moderate their OF scores predicting TI, which did not provide support for hypothesis 5 (originally pertaining to cooperativeness). The lack of effects found relating to H5 and 6 may be due to the reduced quality of the personality measures because of the necessary split of the cooperativeness scale into two, thus halving the length of both scales. The literature in moderator research has identified artefacts which reduce the ability to identify significant interaction effects in small sample research. For example, Aguinis, Beaty, Boik and Pierce (2005) state that due to many unavoidable design, measurement and statistical artefacts in a field setting (which decrease the observed effect size), a sample-based conclusion may show that there is not a moderation when, in fact, there is one in the population. Therefore, whilst the results have shown that pleasantness and compliance do not appear to moderate the OF - TI relationship, further research, with more reliable measures and larger sample sizes, should be conducted to ascertain whether the lack of significant moderation is not due to statistical artefacts.

However, given the relative lack of power to detect moderation, finding significant interaction effects for anxiety (supporting H7) was very important. Firstly: an interaction was detected when a lack of relationship was identified between OF and TI as well as anxiety and TI. This leads to the evidence that there are no first order effects, but a substantial crossover interaction exists nonetheless (see Figure 4).Secondly: the anxiety moderator effect was still significant when controlling for three covariates (tenure, pleasantness and job satisfaction). These three variables all significantly correlated with TI

and the fact that the moderator effect was still significant over and above the inclusion of the variance of these variables illustrates the relative strength of the effect.

The Anxiety Moderation Effect

The significant moderator effect means that the interaction characterised by low anxiety in a low OF environment leads to individuals who tend to have lower levels of TI, whereas those in high OF environments will tend to have higher levels of TI. This is what one would expect to find under predictions of PO fit theories that postulate negative relationships between fit and TI. It appears that low anxiety individuals are able to objectively evaluate characteristics of their work environment and to form leave/stay attitudes dependent upon their match or mismatch with these characteristics (Levitt, 1968).

However, individuals characterised by high anxiety did not seem to fit this pattern. For these employees, there appeared to be no relationship, or even a positive one, between OF and TI. At this point, I can only speculate why this may be the case. Further research would be needed to verify these claims. First, let me explore the potential effect of each of high anxiety and high OF resulting in increased TI, before considering the interaction of both variables. To start, it is likely that any negative stressors that might occur daily in the workplace are perceived as more threatening to high anxiety individuals than low anxiety individuals (Levitt, 1968). In addition, such negative events may also be associated with exacerbated levels of guilt, as research has linked anxiety and guilt-proneness (Levitt, 1968). Furthermore, in a high OF environment, it is possible that such stressors are perceived in a more personal manner due to the work value environment mapping onto their own personal value set (Reich & Adcock, 1976). That is, the values that dictate what is important to the company and how things are done there are also shared by the personal preferences of the individual. This is pertinent because the occurrence of heightened threat in a context of high value congruency can combine to elicit higher levels of TI than in an

environment where the individual does not share the values of the workplace. This elucidates the detrimental effect (i.e. TI) of individuals' high propensity to feel threatened by or guilty about negative workplace occurrences, in combination with the values environment being very personally important to them. Consequently, such individuals who may be easily threatened by, or feel guilty about, workplace events in an environment where they care about the values-context, are likely to experience higher levels of TI.

Conversely, this reasoning would hold for the same sort of high anxiety individuals in a *low* OF environment. While still experiencing threat and guilt about negative stressors in the workplace, individuals would not be as personally affected due to the mismatch in values. Therefore, such individuals are likely to have lower levels of TI than their high OF counterparts. This may explain the mechanism of both the OF environment combined with anxiety, affecting TI, but neither alone affecting TI. Research incorporating mediated moderation of such a 'negative perception salience' could be conducted in future research.

A second possibility for observing no relationship between OF and TI for high anxiety individuals may be related to the nature of the jobs within the participant organisation. The majority of the employees within the sample were air traffic controllers, which are typically highly stressful positions. High anxiety individuals in this context may not pay attention to value congruence cues in comparison to threats and pressures in their workplace occurring daily. Consequently, their intentions to leave are likely to be predicted by some unmeasured variables, other than the predicted OF scores. This is in accordance with Affective Events Theory, which calls attention to the role of work events as causes of affective reactions in the workplace (see Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). In comparison, low anxiety individuals, in the same environment, may pay less attention to daily stressors and, thus, would be more methodical in their evaluations of the work environment, more likely to notice misfit, and, consequently, have greater inclinations toward turnover.

Limitations and Recommendations

Many of the limitations of this research are associated with the inherent difficulties in finding significant interaction effects in studies characterised by low power and small sample sizes (Cohen et al., 2003). The statistical power required to detect such significant interaction effects is a concern, particularly in the case of unreliable predictors (Cohen et al., 2003). Predictor unreliability can be particularly salient in moderator studies, as the reliability of an XZ interaction term is a function of the reliabilities of which it is comprised (for example, .8 * .8 = .64). This is problematic because it means that the estimate of reliability of the cross-product term is lower than the reliability levels of each of the individual predictors. This is particularly the case when one of the predictor variables contains measurement error. This is also one of the sources of downward bias in observed effect sizes in comparison with their 'real world' equivalents (Aguinis et al., 2005). The effect of unreliability of a variable is the resulting attenuated correlation with other variables. If two predictors in an equation are uncorrelated, then the effect of unreliability in the predictor is the attenuation of its relationship with the criterion, such that its regression coefficient is underestimated in relation to the true regression coefficient in the population (Cohen et al., 2003). This shows the potential effect of unreliability in the predictor variables influencing the observed regression coefficients in this study.

Research has also shown that when the interaction term is more unreliable than two less-than-perfect predictors, the power to detect the interaction term is expected to be reduced (more so than the power to detect first-order effects). For example, when X and Z predictors have reliability of 1.0 and the true effect size of the interaction effect is *moderate*, a sample size of 55 is required for a power level of .80 to detect the interaction (Cohen et al., 2003). By contrast, for the existence of a *small* effect size interaction, with .80 power, to detect the interaction, it may require over 1000 cases when individual predictor variables

have reliabilities of .80 (Cohen et al., 2003)! Therefore, effect sizes for interactions that are typically small (e.g. the equivalent of an R^2 of .02) indicate that a relatively large sample size is necessary for the interaction to be found significant (Frazier et al., 2004). This shows that, unless an interaction effect has a large effect size in the population, the likelihood to detect the moderation effect in small sample size research is very low. Consequently, finding a moderation effect for anxiety in this study may be indicative of a large and previously undetected effect being present in the population.

The final limitation is associated with using correlations to derive fit scores. Edwards (1993) has argued that correlations (as well as difference scores) in congruency literature should be discarded due to their conceptual ambiguity and likelihood for inflated relationships. In its place, Edwards (1993) recommends the use of polynomial regression. However, this is a non-linear method that does not produce a statistic that is convertible to the correlation coefficient (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006). Therefore, while there may be times when alternative statistical procedures are appropriate because of limitations inherent in OLS regression (Frazier et al., 2004), it has been argued that at the present time hierarchical multiple regression remains the preferable analysis technique in correlational data (Evans, 1991). Whilst multicollinearity and method variance are issues related to this technique, they can be somewhat overcome with standardizing of predictor variables and the use of valid and reliable measures, as was aimed for in this study (Evans, 1991).

Future Research

In future research, the moderation result for anxiety should be replicated in another sample and, preferably, with a different OF fit measure (i.e., the OCP). It would also be beneficial to obtain a greater number of organisational SME value rankings in order to provide a more robust and representative OVP. A second suggestion would be to

incorporate a subjective-style PO fit measure as well as behavioural outcome variables to the questionnaire so that relationships between these variables can be explored in comparison to those with OF in this study. It would also be prudent for future research to incorporate more strictly reliable scales and to conduct a more rigorous pilot study to ensure the validity of each item in the scales. In addition, future studies of this nature should incorporate a longitudinal design to establish causal relationships and examine how the moderator-outcome relationships change over time. This may also overcome limitations in relation to restriction of range, whereby individuals experiencing misfit may have already left the organisation. Lastly, the application of structural equation modelling would contribute to the understanding of relationships in a more complete way than OLS regression can provide.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

Implications of this research ensue from the evidence that PO fit has a differential impact on TI, depending on individuals' anxiety levels. This is a considerable finding in this initial exploratory research, which is based in a domain relatively devoid of individual difference moderators. This finding also holds great promise for future development and research in the PO fit domain. The establishment of the significant personality facet moderator, anxiety, potentially signifies that PO fit-attitudinal outcome relationships may also be differential depending upon the level of other, currently-unexplored, personality facets in employees.

From a theoretical perspective, this research shows that it is not just how similar an individual is to an organisation, with regard to certain characteristics (PO fit), that influences their attitudes about their workplace, as the ASA Framework suggests. Instead, complex interactions between personality and various features of the work environment may determine an individual's sensitivity to value congruency levels. In this study, only low

anxiety individuals clearly exhibited expected patterns of relationships between fit and TI, while high anxiety individuals seemed to be preoccupied with issues other than value misfit. These preliminary findings are an exciting and worthwhile addition to the PO fit research domain and provide many more avenues for fruitful research in the future.

From a pragmatic perspective, this research has highlighted the importance of acknowledging the influence of factors such as PO fit and personality facets when organisational managers are looking to reduce costs such as those associated with turnover. For an individual to want to remain with an organisation, they may not only need to have a value system congruent with the central values of the organisation for beneficial outcomes. But if the individual also has low anxiety levels, this combination is likely to produce the lowest levels of TI. An understanding of how PO fit and anxiety interrelate to produce outcomes that differ from those generated by either predictor alone may give the organisation a competitive edge. For example, the use of this information in contexts of selection as well as training and development might enable the organisation to reduce their employees' levels of intent to quit their job. There needs to be further research carried out on the attitudinal and behavioural effects of individuals with certain levels of PO fit and anxiety levels before such knowledge can be incorporated into organisational processes, such as selection procedures.

This research has aimed to contribute to the PO fit picture by exploring moderating relationships of personality with PO fit predicting attitudinal outcomes in the workplace. The preliminary findings are an exciting and worthwhile addition to the PO fit research domain and provide many avenues for fruitful research in the future.

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Appendix A

Survey Questionnaire

Person-Organisation Fit 2007

STATEMENT OF INFORMED CONSENT AND CONFIDENTIALITY OF INFORMATION

Overview

This survey is being carried out by myself (Kaleena Muirhead) within the Department of Psychology at the University of Canterbury. The outcome of this project will contribute to masters dissertation research as well as providing information to improve your working environment. The research is on the area of person organisation fit, personality and job satisfaction.

It is beneficial to have as many employees complete this questionnaire as we can.

Your participation is very important and most appreciated.

Informed Consent

Your participation is voluntary and your responses will remain **anonymous** and **confidential**. All information that you provide on these surveys will be kept at the University, and only average results will be reported to the organisation, so you will not be individually identifiable.

The questionnaire will take approximately 20 minutes of your time. As a token of our appreciation, you will receive a scratchy ticket for completing the questionnaire.

I understand the preceding information and agree to participate in this study.

Signature: _____ Date: _____

If you have any questions regarding this research you may contact myself (Kaleena Muirhead) at -

- kmm104@student.canterbury.ac.nz,

Or Dr. Sasha Chernyshenko at -

- sasha.chernyshenko@canterbury.ac.nz

INSTRUCTIONS:

- **Please answer as honestly and as accurately as possible. This is not an assessment of you as a person, and there is no right or wrong answer.**
- **All information will be kept strictly anonymous and confidential.**
- **Please read each statement carefully, before completing your response.**
- **Please answer every question.**

Gender: (Please tick)

Male	Female
☐	☐

Age (in years): (Please tick)

24 or younger	25-34	35-44	45-54	55+
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Time at organisation: (Please tick)

Less than 1 year	1 yr - 2 yrs	3-5 yrs	6 – 10yrs	11+yrs
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Job Complexity: (Please tick)

Rate how complex you think your job is in comparison to the average job in Christchurch -

Not as complex	Somewhat less complex	Somewhat more complex	More complex
☐	☐	☐	☐

Section 1 – Personality

- This section involves rating statements about particular aspects of your personality; how you might typically think, feel and act.
- If you are unsure, or are stuck between two answers when responding to a statement, please give the one which is more appropriate rather than indicating between two answers or not answering at all.
- In deciding on your answer to each statement, consider your life in general and not only the last few weeks or months.
- **Please answer the following statements by circling the description that most accurately describes you, on a scale from 1 – Strongly Disagree, to 4 – Strongly Agree**

		STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
1.	When things go wrong, I always fear the worst.	1	2	3	4
2.	Immigrants really irritate me. (R)[1]	1	2	3	4
3.	I keep to myself and plan to stay that way. (R)	1	2	3	4
4.	I worry that I will embarrass myself in front of a crowd.	1	2	3	4
5.	I feel very uncomfortable in social situations. (R)	1	2	3	4
6.	I understand that people can have different attitudes towards certain things than I do.	1	2	3	4
7.	I don't hide behind nice words; I say what I really feel. (R)	1	2	3	4
8.	I couldn't go a whole day without talking to someone.	1	2	3	4
9.	I prefer the company of my own nationality. (R)	1	2	3	4
10.	I'm just about the most outgoing person there is.	1	2	3	4
11.	I like to hear different people's views on political issues.	1	2	3	4
12.	Sometimes I worry about things I did during the day, but I don't lose much sleep over it. (R)	1	2	3	4
13.	I worry a lot more than others.	1	2	3	4
14.	I consider myself non-judgemental when it comes to people with different customs.	1	2	3	4
15.	I welcome all immigrants.	1	2	3	4
16.	I change the channel on the TV when they show cultural programs. (R)	1	2	3	4
17.	I'd rather give in to what others want than risk a conflict.	1	2	3	4
18.	I learn a great deal from people with differing beliefs.	1	2	3	4
19.	I have a lot of friends.	1	2	3	4
20.	I avoid arguments at all costs.	1	2	3	4
21.	On most days I won't have even a single worry. (R)	1	2	3	4
22.	Even when I am well prepared for an exam, I tend to feel tense and nervous.	1	2	3	4
23.	Immigrants should leave their own customs behind. (R)	1	2	3	4
24.	I don't get startled or shaken up easily. (R)	1	2	3	4
25.	I am quiet around people that I don't know well. (R)	1	2	3	4

[1] Items with an (R) indicate they were reverse-scored.

Continued:

		STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
26.	When dealing with people, I call things as I see them. (R)	1	2	3	4
27.	I prefer to visit countries where they speak my language. (R)	1	2	3	4
28.	I am more of a listener than a talker. (R)	1	2	3	4
29.	Most people would say that I am shy. (R)	1	2	3	4
30.	I am a really easy person to live with.	1	2	3	4
31.	When I hear people whispering, I can't help but think that they are saying something bad about me.	1	2	3	4
32.	Talking to people makes me feel great.	1	2	3	4
33.	You can't get along with everyone you meet, so I don't even try. (R)	1	2	3	4
34.	I am on good terms with nearly everyone.	1	2	3	4
35.	I don't hold grudges for very long.	1	2	3	4
36.	I'm nice to others even when I don't have to be.	1	2	3	4
37.	I have no problem expressing my opinion, even when it contradicts what others say. (R)	1	2	3	4
38.	Even if I've had a really stressful day at work, I fall asleep easily. (R)	1	2	3	4
39.	I meet new people and make friends all the time.	1	2	3	4
40.	Stress doesn't greatly affect my concentration. (R)	1	2	3	4

Section 2 – Work Values

- This section asks you to **rank** various features of a work environment in terms of their importance.
- Note that each person is different in terms of what is most important, so there are no right or wrong answers.
- **Please rank the 15 values below by numbering them from 1 to 15; 1 being most indicative of you and 15 being least indicative of you.**
- For example, if you think that being in a place with a lot of variety and excitement is most important to you (Variety), put a 1 in the box adjacent to it in the table below, then if you think that being in a place where your own ideas and inventions can be tried out (Creativity) is the next most important thing for you, put a 2 in the box adjacent to it, and so on. Don't worry if your rankings don't come out exactly how you wanted (e.g., some values may feel equally important), all we want is the general rank order.

Ranking (Please enter values from 1 – 15)	Value	Description
	Ability Utilisation	Place that uses my abilities and skills the best way possible.
	Achievement	Place that emphasises results, individual performance and competition.
	Conformity	Place where people play by the rules, are polite and non-confrontational.
	Independence	Place where I can be my own boss and be able to set my own goals and schedule.
	Variety	Place where there is a lot of variety and excitement.
	Compensation	Place where my pay is as good or better than what other people with my qualifications are making.
	Security	Place that provides steady and secure employment.
	Detail	Place that is well organised and detail oriented.
	Comfort	Place that has comfortable and non-stressful working conditions.
	Advancement	Place that provides opportunities for fast advancement.
	Recognition	Place where I get a lot of recognition for my work.
	Authority	Place where I can tell people what to do.
	Social Status	Place where I can be seen as "somebody" in the community.
	Creativity	Place where I can try out my own ideas and inventions.
	Responsibility	Place where I can be responsible for lots of important issues and events.

Section 3 – Job Satisfaction

- This section will ask you about how you feel about your job as well as aspects of it.
- **Please answer the following statements by circling the description that most accurately describes you, on a scale from 1 – Strongly Disagree, to 5 – Strongly Agree.**

		STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEUTRAL	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
1.	I look forward to coming to work	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I respect my supervisor	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I would feel better if one of my coworkers left (R)	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do	1	2	3	4	5
5.	My supervisor is not supportive (R)	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I really like my coworkers	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I like my job better than the average worker does	1	2	3	4	5
8.	There are benefits we do not have which we should have (R)	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I can't wait to leave work each day (R)	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I enjoy most of what I do at work	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be (R)	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion	1	2	3	4	5

Section 4 – Organisational Commitment

- This section will ask you about your attitude towards and identification with your organisation.
- **Please answer the following statements by circling the description that most accurately describes you, on a scale from 1 – Strongly Disagree, to 5 – Strongly Agree.**

		STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEUTRAL	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
1.	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I feel very little loyalty to this organization (R)	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization	1	2	3	4	5
6.	This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I really care about the fate of this organization	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar (R)	1	2	3	4	5
9.	For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work	1	2	3	4	5
10.	The pay and work here is interesting, but the organization itself should be greatly improved (R)	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization (R)	1	2	3	4	5

Section 5 – Turnover Intentions

- This section will ask you about how inclined you are to leave your job.
- Remember your responses are anonymous.
- **Please answer the following statements by circling the description that most accurately describes you, on a scale from 1 – Strongly Disagree, to 5 – Strongly Agree.**

		STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEUTRAL	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
	In the past:					
1.	I have tried to find another job.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I have made plans to leave the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I have talked to people about other potential jobs.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I have thought about leaving the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I have made plans to change jobs within the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I have searched the internet or newspaper for better jobs.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I have thought about moving to countries where jobs like mine are in high demand (eg. Australia, Dubai).	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I have sought job information (eg. Job descriptions) from organisations advertising job vacancies.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I would turn down another job for more pay in order to stay with this organisation (R)	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I feel that I have too few alternative job options to be able to consider leaving this organisation (R)	1	2	3	4	5

Section 6 – Socialisation

- This section will ask you about how much time you have spent in the past in mentoring relationships, on work-related social activities and training.
- **For the following questions, please circle the number which most closely suits your response.**

		TWO OR LESS	3 - 5	6 - 8	10+
S1.	How many Airways-based social and recreational events can you remember attending in the last year?	1	2	3	4
S2.	How many hours have you spent with a 'mentor'-type person within the last 3 months or so? (*A mentor being a senior or more knowledgeable/experienced person in the organisation who gives you help and advice)*	1	2	3	4
S3.	How many days have you spent in a formal Airways-run training class in the last 12 months?	1	2	3	4

A) Perceptions of socialisation –

- **Please answer the following statements by circling the description that most accurately describes you, on a scale from 1 – Strongly Disagree, to 4 – Strongly Agree.**

		STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
	Context				
1.	In the last several months, I have been extensively involved with other new recruits/employees in common, job related activities.	1	2	3	4
2.	Most of my training was carried out separate from other new recruits/employees. (R)	1	2	3	4
3.	I have been through a set of training experiences which are specifically designed to give newcomers a thorough knowledge of job related skills.	1	2	3	4
4.	During my training for this job I had little contact with regular organizational members (R)	1	2	3	4
5.	Much of my job knowledge has been acquired informally on a trial and error basis (R)	1	2	3	4
	Social				
6.	I have had to change my attitudes and values to be accepted in this organization (R)	1	2	3	4
7.	My work mates have gone out of their way to help me adjust to this organisation.	1	2	3	4
8.	I feel that experienced organizational staff have held me at a distance until I conform to their values. (R)	1	2	3	4
9.	I am gaining a clear understanding of my role in this organization from observing my senior colleagues.	1	2	3	4
10.	I have received little guidance from experienced organizational members as to how I should perform my job. (R)	1	2	3	4
11.	I have been generally left alone to discover what my role should be in this organization. (R)	1	2	3	4
	Content				
12.	I have a good knowledge of the time it will take me to go through the various stages of the training process in this organisation.	1	2	3	4
13.	The way in which my career will follow a fixed series of events has been clearly communicated to me.	1	2	3	4
14.	I have little idea when to expect a new work project or training exercise in this organization (R)	1	2	3	4
15.	Most of my knowledge of what may happen to me in the future comes informally, through the grapevine, rather than through formal organizational channels (R)	1	2	3	4

Thank you.